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ABSTRACT

The report provides information on the social situation, the family, and the education system in Greece. The social situation is discussed in terms of the Greek political system, forms of society and social stratification, the linguistic situation, religions represented, social life and relationships, and 14 holidays and festivals. Information on the family covers the family's composition, family relationships, respective roles and positions of the different family members, the aim of education within the family, living and housing conditions, and eating habits. An overview of the education system from pre-school to higher education is provided. Each of the stages in education is discussed: pre-school education; primary education; secondary education (the "gymnasium," the "lyceum," technical and vocational schools, and technical and vocational lyceums); and higher education. Information is also provided on the role and relative importance of public and private institutions; teaching resources, textbooks, media, and available facilities; methods and prospects of reform; style of teaching and educational relationships; teaching conditions; system of assessment and conditions for advancement; school leaving certificates and reports; and qualifications demanded of primary and secondary teachers (initial training and in-service training). The report concludes with a 9-item bibliography. (NQA)

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THE EDUCATION OF MIGRANT WORKERS' CHILDREN

Dossiers for the intercultural training of teachers

GREECE

Socio-cultural information

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School Education Division
Strasbourg
1982

DECS/EGT (79) 113-E

THE EDUCATION OF MIGRANT WORKERS' CHILDREN

Dossiers
for
the intercultural training of teachers

G R E E C E

SOCIO-CULTURAL INFORMATION

by

Nikolaos RAGOUSSIS

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
1.	SOCIAL SITUATION	1
1.1	Greek political system	1
1.2	Forms of society and social stratification	3
1.3	Linguistic situation	6
1.4	Religions represented	7
1.5	Social life and relationships	8
1.6	Holidays and festivals	9
2.	FAMILY	12
2.1	Definition and composition of the family	12
2.2	Family relationships, respective roles and positions of the different members of the family	12
2.3	The aim of education within the family	14
2.4	Living and housing conditions, eating habits	17
3.	EDUCATION SYSTEM	20
	- General remarks -	
3.1	Stages in education	20
3.1.1	Pre-school education	21
3.1.2	Primary education	21
3.1.3	Secondary education	22
	I. General secondary education	22
	a. Gymnasium	22
	b. Lyceum	23

		Page
	II. Technical and vocational secondary education	26
	a. Technical and vocational schools	26
	b. Technical and vocational lyceums	27
3.1.4	Higher education	28
3.1.5	Role and relative importance of public and private institutions	31
3.2	Teaching resources, textbooks, media, facilities (available) ...	34
3.3	Methods and prospects of reform	35
3.4	Style of teaching and educational relationships	36
3.5	Teaching conditions	36
3.6	System of assessment and conditions for advancement	45
3.7	School leaving certificates and reports	46
3.8	Qualifications demanded of primary and secondary teachers	46
	I. Initial training	47
	a. Training of primary school teachers	47
	b. Training of secondary school teachers	47
	II. In-service training	48

BIBLIOGRAPHY

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1. SOCIAL SITUATION

1.1 THE GREEK POLITICAL SYSTEM

Greece is a country with a long and turbulent history. The freedom and independence of the modern Greek state date from 1831, the year of the Great Uprising against the Ottoman occupation. The first Constitution, drawn up in 1822 and proclaimed during this revolution, laid the foundation of the Republic (1822-1829). This decision was influenced by the traditions of ancient Greece, by the communal organisation of social and political life in Greece under the Turkish occupation and by the ideas of the French Revolution, a universal source of inspiration at the time. By the end of the Greek Revolution, however, the first governor of the independent country, Ioannis Capodistrias (1829-1831), who had concentrated all political power in his hands but had only very few devoted followers, prepared the advent of absolute monarchy and the accession of the first King of the Greeks, Otho I, proposed by the great powers presiding over the fate of the new Greek kingdom.

After a revolt by army and people in 1843, a new Constitution of 1844, introduced a constitutional monarchy, under which the country lived until the end of the reign of Otho I and the accession of King George I of Glucksburg, in 1864. It was at this time that the 'crowned democracy' was instituted. The right to vote was granted to all citizens and political parties grew up and became established. The political system was representative and real power lay with the parliament, while the King did not interfere in political acts or decisions.

Greece continued to be ruled by the Glucksburg dynasty until 1973, with the exception of certain periods, such as the Presidential Republic (1924-1935), the dictatorship of Ioannis Metaxas (1936-1940) and the Colonels' dictatorship (1967-1974).

Since 1909, new progressist tendencies have appeared alongside the Conservative Parties and have found expression originally through the voice of the great Liberal Party of Eleftherios Venizelos, which from time to time shared power with the other Conservative Parties. The ideology of this party was inherited, after the second world war, by the Centre Union, which held power for a short period betweeh 1963 and 1965.

As for the Greek Communist Party, founded during the second decade of the 20th century, it has represented the interests of a more or less important section of the Greek people, but has never gained office. After being banned under the Metaxas and Colonels' dictatorships, it was legalised after the demise of the last dictatorship in 1974.

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The present form of government is defined in the first article of the Constitution adopted by the 5th Greek Constituent Assembly and published in the Official Gazette, No. 111 of 9 May 1975. The text of this article is as follows: "The form of government of Greece is that of a Presidential Parliamentary Republic founded on the principle of sovereignty of the people. All powers emanate from the people, exist in favour of the people and the nation and are exercised in the manner prescribed by the Constitution." The Greek people is represented by 300 members of parliament. In the last elections held in November 1977, the following parties participated:

1. "Nea Demokratia" (New Democracy), regarded as the descendant of the parties of the traditional Right.

2. "Enosis Demokratikou Kentrou" (Democratic Centre Union) consisting of members of the Centre Union descended from the great Liberal Party.

3. "Panellinon Sosialistiko Kinima" (Pan-Hellenic Socialist Movement), which claims to be the new party catering for socialist aspirations.

4. "Simarchia" (Alliance), which included the "Kommunistiko Kinima Esoterikou" ("Internal" Greek Communist Party), the "Enomeni Demokratiki Aristera" (United Democratic Left) and the "Kristianiki Demokratia" (Christian Democrats).

5. "Kommunistiko Kinima Exoterikou" ("External" Greek Communist Party) and

6. "Ethniko Kinima" (National Front) consisting of members of the Extreme Right and Royalist supporters.

The elections, which were organised according to the electoral law of proportional representation, produced the following results: 45% for "New Democracy" and 52% for the other political parties including:

Pan-Hellenic Socialist movement (PA.SO.K): 23%
Democratic Centre Union (E.Dh.K): 8%
National Party (EK): 6%
Alliance (United Democratic Left, KKE-internal, Christian Democrats): 3%
Independents: 2%

The President of the Republic is elected every five years by the members of parliament. He must receive 180 out of the 300 votes cast by the Deputies. This is perhaps the reason why his power is limited, compared with countries like France or the United States, where the President of the Republic is elected by direct universal suffrage. In Greece, it is, on the contrary, the Prime Minister who is vested with the principal powers.

1.2 FORMS OF SOCIETY AND SOCIAL STRATIFICATION

In 1976, the population of Greece was 9,165,000 (1) of whom 49% were men and 51% women, distributed as follows:

- urban population 53% (town of more than 10,000 inhabitants)
- semi-urban population 12% (towns with between 2,000 and 10,000 inhabitants)
- rural population 35%

The national average in each category nevertheless conceals considerable inequalities. According to the 1971 census, more than half the urban population already lived in the capital (2,540,241 of a total of 4,667,459). It is therefore the town of Salonika (Thessaloniki) which has shown the most rapid development. By contrast, in all the other regions of the country, the rural population greatly exceeds the national average. There is therefore a very numerous rural population which is, however, strongly attracted towards the towns, in particular Athens and Salonika.

The working population in Greece in 1975 numbered 3.2 million, ie 35.3% of the total population (2). Distribution according to sectors of activity was as follows:

- primary sector: 35.4%
- secondary sector: 28.2%
- tertiary sector: 36.4%

TABLE 1: EMPLOYMENT TRENDS BETWEEN 1962 AND 1975

Sector	Year		
	1962(3)	1973(4)	1975(5)
Agriculture	53.4	34.1	35.4
Industry	22.1	25.7	28.2
Services	24.2	40.2	36.4

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(1) Source: Estimate by the Greek National Statistical Service.

(2) Source: Statistical Yearbook of Greece, National Statistical Service, Athens, 1976

(3) N Svoronos, "Histoire de la Grèce moderne", Paris PUG, 1973, page 118.

(4) OECD, Economy - Greece 1976, Appendix: Basic Statistics, international comparisons

(5) Statistical Yearbook of Greece, National Statistical Service, Athens, 1976

The various sectors of economic activity have undoubtedly evolved over the last few years. In the primary sector, there has been considerable mechanisation. Whereas there was one tractor for 400 acres and one harvester for 2,800 acres in 1970, the figures for 1975 were 238 and 2,330 respectively.

In the secondary sector, the output index corresponds to international averages, whereas the employment is close to the lowest international figures.

The tertiary sector is satisfactorily keeping abreast of international development in mechanisation. The Gross National Product (GNP) in 1975, sector-by-sector, was:

- primary sector - 18.8%
- secondary sector - 30%
- tertiary sector - 51.2%

An examination of the regular development of the Greek economy over recent years reveals a clear transformation in the economic structures of the country. The agricultural sector, which was preponderant until the early 1960s, has been overtaken by industry which has played a determining role since that time. Whereas agriculture represented 50% of the GNP before the war, it accounted for only 33.5% in 1952 (1), 27.6% in 1962 (1), 20.4% in 1973 (2) and 18.8% in 1975 (3). On the other hand, while industry represented 21.4% of the GNP in 1952 (1), and 26.6% in 1962 (1) it accounted for 32.4% by 1973 (2) and 30% by 1975 (3). Lastly, the services sector, which accounted for 42.5% of the GNP in 1962 (1), represented 47.2% in 1973 (2) and 51.2% in 1975 (3).

By relating these structural transformations in the economy with the aforementioned population changes, we obtain a picture of the transformation in the social fabric of the country.

We have already mentioned the rapid development of the Athens conurbation. But considering that less than one third of the workers registered in 1971 were employed in industry and more than two thirds worked in the services sector, the outstanding feature of the period between the wars and since the second world war is the appearance of a class of small semi-independent tradesmen, middlemen, part-time workers and salaried employees. These new social classes manage to live more or less on the fringe of the general system of production.

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(1) N Svoronos, "Histoire de la Grèce moderne", Paris, PUF, 1973 page 118.

(2) a. OECD, Economy - Greece, 1976, Appendix: Basic Statistics, international comparisons.

b. Statistical Yearbook of Greece, National Statistical Service, Athens, 1974.

(3) Statistical Yearbook of Greece, National Statistical Service, Athens, 1976

It was only towards the end of the 1950s and during the 1960s that the pace of economic development produced a distinct class of technicians, managers, members of the liberal professions, administrators and intellectuals. A distinction must be drawn between these new groups of those described above which oscillate between the lower middle classes and the working classes.

Since the drift from the land towards the towns has increased more rapidly than rate of creation of new jobs, this rural manpower found employment more easily in the tertiary sector than in industry, a situation which also encouraged the emigration of underemployed manpower abroad.

During the period 1970-1974, 249,786 persons, of whom 55.8% were men and 44.2% were women, emigrated to the Federal Republic of Germany (61.3%) and other European (5.1%) and non-European countries (33.6%). Of the total number of emigrants, 17.6% were children of 14 years and less, 50.6% originated from Northern Greece (Macedonia, Thrace and Epirus), 20.2% from the Athens area and central Greece, 7.9% from Thessaly and 17.5% from the Peloponnese and the islands; 45.5% came from rural regions; 48% of emigrants had been in employment: 47% were farm workers or unskilled workers, 30% were craftsmen or industrial workers and 23% exercised a variety of other trades.

During the same period, 121,657 emigrants returned to Greece, including 64,033 (52.6%) from the Federal Republic of Germany, 14,547 (12%) from other European countries and 43,077 (35.4%) from elsewhere abroad.

TABLE 2: DISTRIBUTION OF GREEK EMIGRANTS ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHICAL REGION OF ORIGIN (1970-74)

Geographical region	Number of Greek emigrants	%	Distribution according to host country: Federal Republic of Germany	%	Other European countries	%
Capital	39.538	15.8	11.313	28.6	4.499	11.4
Central Greece	10.919	4.4	5.056	46.3	549	5.1
Pelopennese	18.747	7.5	5.656	30.2	565	3.0
Ionian Islands	5.183	2.1	2.503	48.3	222	4.3
Epirus	17.584	7.1	15.517	88.2	581	3.3
Thessaly	19.764	7.9	15.311	77.5	786	4.0
Macedonia	89.595	35.8	69.197	77.2	3.421	3.8
Thrace	19.294	7.7	17.633	91.4	533	2.8
Aegean Islands	12.002	4.8	2.744	22.9	489	4.1
Crete	8.470	3.4	5.580	65.9	427	5.0
Not-specified	8.700	3.5	2.607	30.0	580	6.7
TOTAL	249.796	100.0	153.117	61.3	12.652	5.1

1.3 *LINGUISTIC SITUATION*

Modern Greek is the language used in social, political, cultural and religious life.

There is no problem of bilingualism, except for the Muslim minority f[illegible] whom, in addition to their fundamental rights as citizens of the Greek state, special conditions are provided on a reciprical basis with the neighbouring country of Turkey.

In the spoken language, there are of course different dialects both in the islands, particularly Crete, and on the Greek mainland. This does not however affect the common form of the spoken language.

The written language does not show the same divergencies as the spoken language, except in literature which occasionally borrows certain simple and naive forms from the Greek dialects.

Nevertheless, since the foundation of the Greek state in 1828, the country has had to cope with a "linguistic problem", which became particularly acute towards the end of the last century, resulting from the rivalry between "Katharevoussa" and "Demotiki", two forms of the same language having grammatical and syntactical differences.

The former, the written language of scholars, the established church and the state, devoid of foreign influences, may be described as perpetuating the erudite tradition inherited largely from the structure and syntax of ancient Greek. The latter, the living language of the present day and also the language of the common people, is full of assimilated foreign elements and has its roots in the popular tradition which emerged around the 10th century.

These two "languages" very soon became the theatre of an ideological war which, at the beginning of this century, took on a specifically political colouring and even made itself felt inside the education system.

In 1917, for example, the democratic form, supported by the progressist government of Eleftherios Venizelos was introduced into the education system for the first time, only to be excluded with the first political changeover in 1920, when a conservative government took office.

Finally, "Demotiki" was adopted for the first two, and subsequently the first four classes of primary school.

Under Act No. 4379/1964, "Demotiki" became the sole language used in primary school and of equal status with the "Katharevoussa" form used in the secondary schools. It was again abolished by the military government of 1967 which re-established the former situation.

After the restoration of democracy in 1974, Act No. 309/1976 established "Demotiki" as the sole official language for all stages of general education. All the political parties represented in the Greek Parliament have reached agreement on this point.

Finally, by decision of the government, "Demotiki" was decreed the official language in all public services, so that the state might come closer to the ordinary citizen, by using the language customarily understood and used by the latter. This innovation, which is developing at a satisfactory rhythm, has not however been implemented in full.

In conclusion, it may be said that family and environment provide pupils with more favourable linguistic conditions than in the past, although fundamental differences are still encountered between the priviliged upper classes and the lower rungs of the social ladder.

1.4 *RELIGIONS REPRESENTED*

Article 3 of the Greek Constitution states that "the prevailing religion in Greece is that of the Eastern Orthodox Church of Christ" which is the established state church. This special provision concerning religion implies no restrictions on religious freedom, however, since, under Article 13 of the Constitution, "freedom of religious conscience is inviolable. Enjoyment of individual and civil rights does not depend on the individual's religious beliefs. The worship of all known religions, provided it does not offend public order or moral principles, shall be performed unhindered and under the protection of law. Proselytism is prohibited."

Currently, the three major Christian confessions, namely Orthodoxy, Catholicism and Protestantism, are all represented in Greek society, alongside non-Christian religions such as Islam and Judaism.

There are no up-to-date official statistics (the last census of the Greek population dates from 1971) on the distribution of the Greek population according to religion. Judging from the results of the census carried out in 1951, where the question of religious adherence was asked, the overwhelming majority (97.8%) of the Greek population is Orthodox.

This is logical since Orthodoxy, which is at once a form of theological expression and a way of life and action, professed throughout the world by the faithful belonging to what is known as the "Orthodox Church" constitutes the religion inherited from the apostolic period.

Classical antiquity, Byzantine Empire and Ottoman occupation are the three periods during which the Greeks' mental outlook was forged. Of these three periods, however, the Byzantine era seems to have marked the Greek mentality most strongly and exercised the most lasting influence on the formation of their national and religious conscience.

During this period, the classical Greek spirit blended harmoniously with Christain doctrine, thereby producing the Orthodox Christian dogmas. These in turn transformed Greco-Christian Orthodox society and determined the role of the Orthodox Church as a factor of social organisation.

Thanks to the special privileges granted by the Sultans to the Oecumenical Patriarch of Constantinople, the Orthodox clergy played a very important part during the long Ottoman occupation, thereby contributing to the liberation of the Greek nation. Owing to this historical role, the clergy enjoys a privileged place in the Greek conscience. In the popular mind, the Greek Orthodox Church is a national church having its rightful place in every public celebration.

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The relations between church and state, based on the Byzantine tradition and defined in the Constitution, determines the attitude of the Church in all manifestations of social, political and economic life. A condition of every act of marriage and baptism - two essential acts in social and economic life - is the celebration of holy communion. Another example is religious instruction which is compulsorily dispensed to pupils of primary and secondary schools by primary teachers and theology teachers, who are laymen and university graduates.

The religious dogma, the relative stability of the ecclesiastical system and the understanding attitude of the Greek people towards them have so far dispensed the Greek Church from introducing a reform similar to that of other Christian confessions, in particular Catholicism. But the decrease in religious practice, the reactions of youth against religion in general and current social and political conditions, aggravated by the international situation, might induce the Greek Church to reform its statute and revise its relations with the state.

1.5 *SOCIAL LIFE AND RELATIONSHIPS*

The two poles of Greek society are the village and the town. For a Greek, to move from village to town means improving his social position. A town, espcially in an industrialised country, guarantees a stable job, better pay and an opportunity for information and education. Education is regarded as the best means of social advancement and for this reason it exercises considerable attraction.

It often happens that whole families work hard to ensure the education of one or other of its members. Once they have succeeded in their professional life, these privileged members in turn help the family to gain access to the upper strata of society.

Mutual assistance between members of the same family, seeking the support of influential persons, and the importance ascribed by Greeks to education are phenomena which produce a social situation characterised by social and economic mobility, the search for rapid promotion and a certain degree of discrimination between social classes.

These conditions determine the social life of Greeks and their relations with strangers and foreigners. The typical Greek often goes out of doors in order to get to know things and people, to be known and to find out. It is for this reason that any "community centre", whether cafe, tavern, public square or church, attract him during his free time. He then invites people into the intimacy of his family surroundings. He will readily welcome a relative, a friend, but also a stranger to his table. This stranger will quickly become a friend thanks to the familiar tone of conversation and questions concerning his age, profession, economic situation and civil status. The Greek bases his relations with relatives and friends on reciprocity.

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He is keen, for example, to take a share in the important moments in the life of those near and dear to him, namely births, christenings, marriages, illnesses, deaths, celebrations etc, and he expects others to do the same for him and his family. And when he finds himself in unfamiliar surroundings - in another region of his country or abroad - he is almost certain of meeting a relative, friend or fellow countryman who will offer him hospitality and, in general, an appropriate form of help. He would act in the same manner if the occasion arose.

1.6 *POLITICAL, RELIGIOUS AND TRADITIONAL HOLIDAYS AND FESTIVALS*

It should be made clear at the outset that in Greece there are no festivals of a purely political nature, in the strict sense of the term. The two major national festivals, for example, celebrated on 28 October and 25 March, are also very closely linked to purely religious events.

1.6.1 "28 Octovrion" (28 October) is one of the two major national holidays. It commemorates the anniversary of Greece's participation in the hostilities of the second world war and celebrates Greek resistance to invasion by the Axis powers, Italy and Germany. On the religious side, it is St Skepi in commemoration of the protection granted to the Greek armies by the Virgin Mary.

1.6.2 "25 Martiou" (25 March) is another major national holiday. It is the anniversary of the proclamation of the Great Revolution of 1821, which led to the liberation and independance of Greece after four centuries of Ottoman occupation (1453-1821). At the same time, it is the feast of the Annunciation, a major religious festival in the Orthodox Church.

After mass, celebrated on the occasion of these two great religious and national festivals in all the churches in the country and those of the Greek communities abroad, a "Te Deum" is sung. These ceremonies are attended by the religious, political and military authorities of the country and their representatives abroad.

1.6.3 "Christouienna" (Christmas) is one of the most important festivals for the Greeks. There are several traditions associated with the birth of Christ which vary from region to region. The most widespread is known as "calanda". On Christmas Eve, children roam about the streets from early in the morning and sing a Christmas song wishing good health and prosperity to passers-by. In the villages, women offer cakes and dried fruit to the children, while in the towns, money is generally given. On Christmas Day, the family gathers round the table for the traditional meal of stuffed turkey.

In accordance with international custom, however, the symbol of this holy day is the Christmas tree, which decorates the living room in every home and the main squares of towns throughout the land.

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1.6.4 "Protokronia" (New Year's Day) On this date, Greeks celebrate the memory of one of the greatest fathers of the Eastern Orthodox Church, St Basil, represented in the guise of Father Christmas distributing presents and expressing the hope that New Year wishes will be fulfilled. On New Year's Eve, the children go about the streets singing "calanda". At the New Year dinner, whether at home, in restaurants or elsewhere, people are fond of playing cards. Whoever has luck in the game is supposed to enjoy good fortune throughout the New Year. According to a time-honoured custom, good luck for the New Year depends on the man who is first to cross the threshold of the house on New Year's Day. Another custom is to conceal a silver coin in a cake, the member of the family who finds it being ensured of good fortune for the rest of the year.

At the end of Mass on New Year's Day in all churches in Greece and in Greek communities abroad, a "Te Deum" is celebrated in the presence of the religious, political and military authorities of the country and of their representatives abroad.

1.6.5 "Theofaneia" (Baptism of Christ or Epiphany: 6 January) This is a major religious festival for Greeks: it is the day when the waters are blessed and evil spirits are driven from the earth. For the Greek people, a sea-loving nation since antiquity, benediction of the waters is of particular significance. Special festivities are held above all in coastal towns.

1.6.6 "Ton Agion Pateron" (Festival of the Three Great Fathers of the Orthodox Church):

a. St Basil the Great
b. St Gregory of Nazianzus } on 30 January
c. St John Chrysotom

The Greeks attribute particular importance to this festival, which commemorates the wisdom, spirituality and saintliness of these three fathers. The latter are also the patron saints of schoolchildren and students and this Saints' Day is a holiday in schools and at all levels of education.

1.6.7 "Kathari Deftera" (Shrove Monday) This is the first day of Lent which lasts until Easter. It is a holiday and an occasion for Greeks to enjoy the pleasures of the countryside. In addition, a series of evening services devoted to the Virgin are held each Friday evening throughout the Lenten period.

1.6.8 "Pascha" (Easter) The major religious festival for the Orthodox Church and, hence, for the Greeks. It is celebrated on the first Sunday after the full moon following the spring equinox. Easter Sunday is the culmination of Holy Week, or "the Great Week" according to the Greek expression, during which a series of evening services are celebrated in all churches. Many believers and their family attend Midnight Mass, which is celebrated in a

manner reminiscent of the splendour of the Byzantine period. After the Easter Mass, the whole family assembles around the "pre-Easter" table to eat Easter eggs and the traditional soup known as"magiritsa". The official Easter Sunday lunch, especially in the provinces, consists of paschal lamb roasted on the spit. This is an occasion for dances and religious and secular songs. All these happenings are punctuated by the joyous expression "Christos Anesti", ie "Christ is risen".

1.6.9 "Protomaia" (1 May) Flower festival. Holiday. According to a traditional custom, the door of each house should be decorated with a small garland of wild flowers. In recent years, this holiday has been seen as a day linked to the class struggle.

1.6.10 "Lambri" (Whit Sunday) and "Agio Pnefma" (Festival of the Holy Spirit). Typical religious holidays.

1.6.11 "I Anabasis" (Assumption of the Virgin Mary: 15 August) The most notable religious festival devoted to the Virgin Mary. The Greeks have a special veneration for the Virgin: each house has at least one icon representing her, next to the crucifix. On this occasion, numerous believers make a pilgrimage to the islands of Tinos and Paros to worship the icons of the Virgin. These two places of pilgrimage correspond to Lourdes in France and Fatima in Portugal. Various other exist in Greece. Holiday.

1.6.12 Festival of the patron saint of the village, region, tradesmen's corporation, Army Each village, each parish, each town and sometimes whole regions such as the islands of Zante (Zakynthos), Corfu, Cephalonia, etc, have a patron saint. This Saint's Day is a holiday and is marked by great festivities. The same applies to the patron saints of the various trades and of the Army. Such celebrations belong rather to local traditions.

1.6.13 Saint's Day associated with a person's name Until the second world war, it was customary in Greece to celebrate the Saint's Day corresponding to a person's christian name, rather than the birthday. This habit has been maintained, but there is an increasing tendency to celebrate birthdays as well. The most common first names are, for men: John, George, Demetrius, Constatine, Nicholas, etc and, for women: Mary, Helen , Catherine, Anne, Angela, Vassiliki etc.

1.6.14 School holidays In addition to general public holidays, pupils and teachers have extra school holidays, the dates of which are fixed for the entire country: approximately 12 weeks between mid-June and mid-September, 2 weeks over the Christmas and New Year period and 2 weeks for the Easter celebrations.

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2. *FAMILY*

2.1 *DEFINITION AND COMPOSITION OF THE FAMILY*

There is no definition of the family in Greek civil law, but a selection of articles on the family in the civil code provide the following picture:

a. In the broad sense of the term, a family is a group of persons having the same origin or united by marriage;

b. in the strict sense, a family is composed of a couple lawfully united in matrimony, sharing their house with their unmarried minor children.

The attitude of young people towards marriage is characterised by a certain degree of stability in Greece, considering that the marriage index (annual number of marriages per 1,000 inhabitants) shows no great variations over the last 30 years (between 60 per 1,000 and 90 per 1,000).

The average age of marriage is very gradually dropping in the case of men (28 years of age at present) and slightly more rapidly for women (23 years of age at present).

In towns, women usually marry earlier than their rural counterparts, who tend more often to remain single.

The size of Greek families is steadily decreasing. This may be explained by the continuous drop in the birth rate (16 births per 1,000 inhabitants in 1975 as against 24.5 births per 1,000 inhabitants in 1940). This decrease in the number of members of Greek families may be observed not only in towns but also in rural areas where there is traditionally a high incidence of large families. According to the 1971 census, the average size of families was 3.1 persons in urban areas and 3.5 in rural areas, whereas in 1940 the average number of persons per family was 4.3 for the country as a whole.

2.2 *FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS, RESPECTIVE ROLES AND POSITIONS OF THE DIFFERENT MEMBERS OF THE FAMILY*

In Greek society, which is inherently a traditional one, the family constitutes a very stable institution, with its own set of traditions, customs and habits.

The family structure is patriarchal: the father is the head of the household, the person who takes the important decisions. Women find expression rather in their roles as wife, mother and housewife rather than through their individual personality.

Greek women themselves regard this as their ordained destiny which they accept without demur, regarding any activity other than looking after their family as of secondary importance.

Admittedly, there are differences according to cultural standard, place of residence, social class, age, etc. The husband's authority is less if he has received a higher education, whereas it is stronger if his education is more modest. The higher one goes up the social scale, moreover, the more husband and wife have a modern outlook with regard to their respective roles. In the middle classes, women are still in a transitional stage, fluctuating between the traditional values of the obedient wife and social innovation. The fact that middle class women participate in the economic life of the country and enjoy almost equal opportunities with respect to primary and secondary education contributes largely to this change. Lastly, in the lower classes, women are definitely at a disadvantage. Traditional values are deeply seated, ignorance prevails and education is inadequate. At this level, men therefore continue to play the role of "master of the house".

In urban areas, trends are also more progressive compared with rural regions, where men have very little to do with problems of the home, which they generally regard as a matter for women.

In the Athens area, in particular, where one third of the population of Greece is settled, surveys on the sharing of responsibilities within the family have produced the following conclusions:

a. The management of the family budget is as a rule the responsibility of the wife, under the husband's supervision. Working mothers take decisions above all concerning children's education, the purchase of clothes for the whole family and household furnishings and appliances.

b. Decisions on the choice of friends and leisure activities are regarded by both sexes as being within the man's sphere of competence.

c. Decisions concerning family size and relations with parents-in-law are taken jointly.

Generally speaking, it appears that the man's authority diminishes shortly after the birth of the children, since it is principally the mother who takes charge of their education, thereby acquiring a certain authority over them. But both partners tackle together the problem of the children's education, which must be adequate even if this means financial sacrifices for the parents. This phenomenon may be observed throughout the country.

At this point, mention should be made of the characteristic traits of the Greek wife. In the presence of relatives or friends, she behaves as if all decisions are taken on the husband's initiative, whereas in reality she tries to influence him indirectly and very often achieves her purpose without the husband's realising.

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Finally, it should be added that the state is also endeavouring to improve the condition of married couples through legislation. By means of the Civil Code and amendments to articles affecting the family - one example being the legal ban on the offer of dowries by women to their future husband, a very deeply-rooted custom in Greek society - it is hoped to pave the way for gradual change. Even in rural areas, moreover, there has been an appreciable improvement in the status of women over the last ten years.

Regarding the place and role of children in the family, Greek parents consider that their first duty is to "obey". Both father and mother demand discipline, although the mother manages to strike a balance between strictness and leniency. As a general rule though, parents' relationship to their children may be said to be egotistical.

Lastly, with regard to the stability of Greek families, the number of divorces is on the increase (1.2 divorces for every 100 marriages in 1961, compared with a figure of 1.5 divorces in 1971). One third of divorces concern couples married for more than ten years. Divorces are normally more frequent in towns than in the country. The reason most frequently brought forward to justify divorce is the "breakdown of conjugal relations". Divorces are frequently granted for reciprocal fault, while in other cases responsibility is attributed more often to the wife than to the husband. This is due to the traditionally greater indulgence towards men than towards women. Furthermore, extra-marital relations by a man are more difficult to prove owing to the distance between his place of work or leisure and his home.

2.3 *THE AIM OF EDUCATION WITHIN THE FAMILY, DIFFERENCES IN TRAINING OBJECTIVES BETWEEN BOYS AND GIRLS*

If one attempts to deduce the aims of child education from the educational standard of future parents, statistics show that only a minority of the latter have a higher education diploma while the majority are merely able to read and write.

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TABLE 3: DETAILS OF EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS OF HUSBAND AND WIFE AT THE TIME OF MARRIAGE, IN 1974 AND 1964 (PERCENTAGES)

Educational standard	1974		1964	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Illiterate	0.7	1.1	1.4	3.9
Read and write only	67.3	69.7	80.1	82.6
Secondary education certificate	21.6	23.4	12.7	11.4
Higher education certificate	10.4	5.8	5.6	2.1
Did not reply	-	-	0.2	0.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

However, the undeniable progress in education achieved over the last decade is apparent particularly at the secondary and higher education levels. The number of persons able only to read and write in 1964 decreased in 1974 according as the number of those having completed secondary schooling or higher education increased. It should also be borne in mind that the high percentage of persons having only a rudimentary educational background is due to the high number of elderly persons included in this category.

According to available statistics, the number of women in education decreases the higher up the educational scale one goes. This emerges clearly from the following table.

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TABLE 4: DISTRIBUTION OF MEN AND WOMEN ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL LEVEL IN 1974 (1)

Educational level	Total	Men	Women
Higher educational certificates	100	71	29
Secondary education certificates	100	52	48
Primary education certificates	100	53	47
Some attendance at primary school	100	39	61
Illiterate	100	21	79

In higher education institutes and colleges of education, the number of male students (149,884 in 1971) is twice that of female students (60,220). There is therefore great inequality of opportunity between sexes, which increases the lower one goes on the social scale. Boys in the upper social classes are seven times more likely to attend a higher educational establishment than boys from working class or farming backgrounds. For girls, the proportion is twelve to one. In addition, girls have a traditional preference for certain branches of study. The proportion of female students in the Arts Faculties of Athens and Salonika Universities is 70%, compared to a mere 12% in the Technical University and the Polytechnics.

Even among young people today, the opinion lingers on that higher education and professional ambitions are incompatible with a girl's role as wife and mother. The fact is, however, that the more advanced her level of education is, the more likely a woman is to exercise a profession. Certain more conservative women nevertheless prefer to neglect their education, thereby deliberately choosing to depend entirely on their husband, rather than performing an exhausting job of work in addition to their household responsibilities.

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(1) Latest available statistics at time of drafting.

2.4 *LIVING AND HOUSING CONDITIONS, EATING HABITS*

A survey of all households in the country (2,556,000) has shown that:

a. 27% live in rented accommodation, compared with 73% who are home owners;

b. individual income in 1973 amounted to 1,816 US dollars - the following table gives an idea of the average amounts spent on the different categories of product.

TABLE 5: AVERAGE MONTHLY PURCHASES ACCORDING TO CATEGORY OF PRODUCT, IN DRACHMAI (1971 CENSUS) (1)

1. Food	3,426 drachmai
2. Alcohol and tobacco	448 drachmai
3. Clothes and footwear	1,206 drachmai
4. Housing costs, water, heating and electricity	1,234 drachmai
5. Household goods	857 drachmai
6. Health	457 drachmai
7. Education and leisure	651 drachmai
8. Communications and transport	1,033 drachmai
9. Other goods and services	296 drachmai
T O T A L	9.608 drachmai

c. For every thousand (1,000) inhabitants, there were 137 telephones, 92 televisions sets and 25 cars (in 1972).

d. With regard to health care, there were 162 doctors per 100,000 inhabitants in 1971 although their regional distribution was very uneven, the majority having practices in and around the capital, whereas certain provincial towns and villages were desperately short of doctors.

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(1) Latest available statistics at time of drafting

The average dwelling in 1971 consisted of less than three rooms. The 1971 census also revealed that it was urgent to improve the household amenities, in particular with regard to bathrooms, toilets (wc) and the provision of running water, in order to provide families with basic facilities. In rural regions, the situation is worse, in that 94.2% of dwellings have no bathroom or shower, 95% have no water-closet, 69.5% have no running water inside the house and 26.7% have no electricity. Lastly, regarding the food situation, it may be said generally that there are often food shortages among the population, although serious cases of malnutrition are very rare.

Scientific research on this subject has revealed cases of vitamin D, iodine and food deficiencies, including a lack of calories and proteins in certain poor rural areas.

The most serious aspect is that these deficiencies are not detected and eliminated early enough in the poor and mountainous areas where they are frequent.

In addition, eating habits evolve slowly despite the efforts of the Ministry of Agriculture, whose officials regularly tour rural areas. It must be admitted that there is ignorance of this subject among country-dwellers who live exclusively off the produce of their farm, which frequently does not satisfy alimentary requirements, especially for pregnant women and children.

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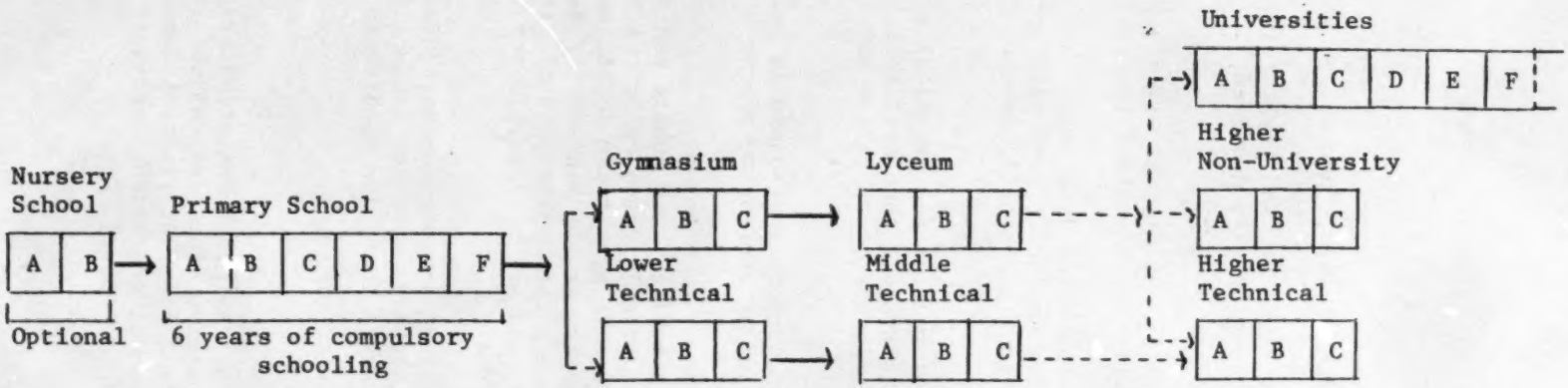
GREEK REPUBLIC
MINISTRY OF NATIONAL EDUCATION AND RELIGION
DIRECTORATE GENERAL OF GENERAL EDUCATION
DIRECTORATE FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION PROGRAMMING
SECTION A1: ORGANISATION OF PROGRAMMES

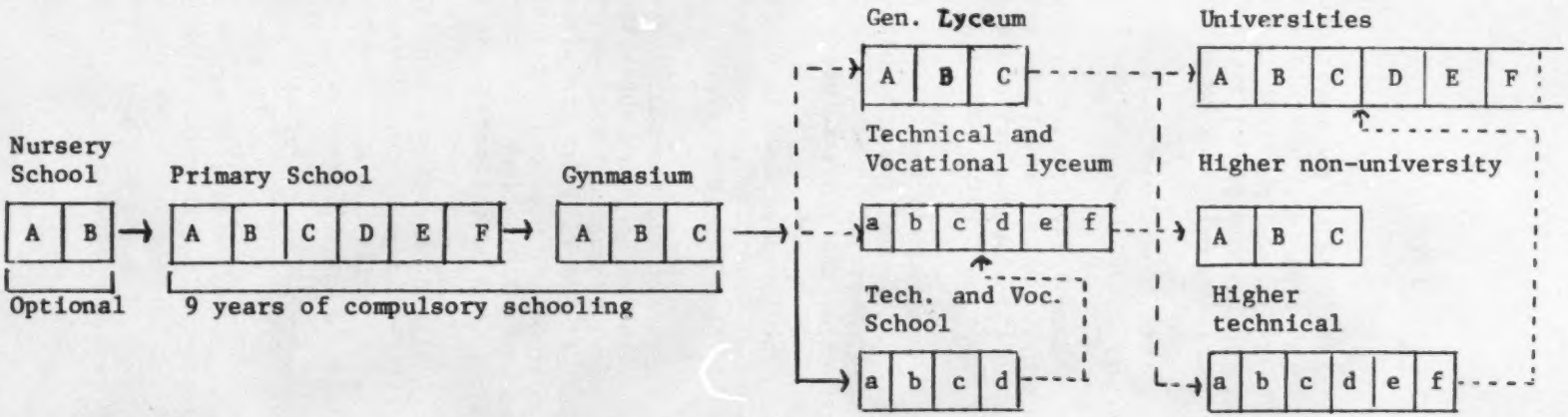
GREEK EDUCATION SYSTEM
GENERAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

YEAR | PRIMARY EDUCATION | SECONDARY EDUCATION | TERTIARY EDUCATION

a. 1976-77



b. 1977-78



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Notes

1. ABCDEF = Year of study
2. abcdef = Semester
3. ⟶ = transfer not subject to exam
4. ⇢ = transfer subject to exam

3. EDUCATION SYSTEM

GENERAL REMARKS

According to the Greek Constitution of 1975, "education constitutes a basic mission for the state and shall aim at the moral, intellectual, professional and physical training of Greeks ... and their formation as free and responsible citizens." Education is also designed "to develop their national and religious conscience."

This educational role of the state is embodied in Organic Laws 309/76 and 576/77 on general education and technical education respectively.

Since 1977, compulsory education lasts for nine years, six years at elementary school and three years at "gymnasium", lower secondary education. Before 1977, compuslory education lasted six years, ie for the duration of elementary (primary) school.

Education is free at all levels of general and technical school. Text-books are issued free and half-fare tickets are made available to pupils having to travel to school by public transport. Bursaries may also be granted by the state to needy pupils.

The language used in education and school text-books is modern Greek, known as "demotiki", which is the medium of expression of the Greek nation and its leading authors.

Primary and secondary education comprises both public and private establishments, which apply the same curricula drawn up by the Ministry of National Education. This centralisation is also found in the administration which is placed under the direct authority of the Ministry of National Education. The general inspectors ensure the application of circulars from the Central Department of the Ministry and are responsible for the proper functioning of the schools in their area.

Higher education establishments alone are autonomous bodies enjoying relative independence. They are administered by a staff council, whose terms of reference are renewed each year. There are no private higher education establishments.

3.1 STAGES IN EDUCATION

At the outset, it may be said that the Greek education system, from nursery school through to vocational and permanent education, is modelled on the international system. There is a clear distinction between the three levels: primary, which includes pre-school education, secondary and higher or tertiary education (see organisational chart).

3.1.1 *Pre-school education*

Attendance at nursery school, which lasts for two years is optional. This school takes in children aged three years and six months on 1 October of the year of enrolment. Nursery school attendance is increasing, since the numer of working women is constantly rising and day nurseries are still very rare.

Nursery school is designed to consolidate and, where necessary, complement the child's family education, to promote his physical and intellectual development and facilitate his adjustment to the natural and social environment.

Pre-school education is undergoing change and the state has not yet succeeded in entirely replacing all private establishments, which are particularly prevalent at this level.

The Ministry of National Education, aided by its scientific and educational "task force", the Centre for Educational Research and Development (KEME), has worked out a modern curriculum for nursery schools to be introduced in the 1980-81 academic year.

3.1.2 *Primary education*

Primary schools take in pupils aged five years and six months on 1 October of the year of enrolment. Attendance at this type of school is compulsory and lasts six years.

Primary schooling is designed to establish pupils' education on general and solid foundations, enrich their experience, arouse their awareness and develop their physical and mental capacities, provide them with a basic knowledge of their natural and historic environment and offer a grounding in religious, national and classical education.

On the completion of primary studies, a certificate ("apolytirion") is awarded which entitles the holder to direct access to secondary education.

In accordance with a ratio of 30 pupils to one teacher, primary schools are divided into categories: sole-charge schools (one teaching post for all classes), two-teacher schools, three-teacher schools etc, up to fifteen teacher schools with a population of 421-450 pupils.

There are still a great many sole-charge schools. Of a total of 8,966 public primary day schools, 3,350 (37.3%) operated on a sole-charge basis in 1974/75. Considering that there were only four schools of this type in the Athens region and three in the Salonika region, it must be deduced that virtually all such single-teacher schools were situated in rural areas (3,139 out of 3,350). This is due to the fact that the rural population is widely scattered in small hamlets throughout the mountain areas and the islands.

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In recent years there has been a constant fall in the number of primary schools (from 10,881 in 1969/70 to 9,729 in 1974/75), due in part to the closing of several sole-charge schools for lack of pupils resulting from rural depopulation, and also to the disappearance of primary schools offering evening courses.

There was in fact a notable reduction in the number of primary schools providing evening classes, namely 80% (of the 452 evening primary schools in 1969/70, only 89 remained in 1974/75, the number of pupils having shrunk from 10,251 to a mere 2,058). In view of the fact that these schools formed part of the adult education programme for the reduction of illiteracy, it may be deduced that there has been a very gratifying reduction in the number of illiterates in Greece.

3.1.3 Secondary education

I. General secondary education

There are two successive stages, the "Gymnasium" and the "Lyceum" each lasting three years. They are both clearly distinct and independent types of school with their own staff and administration. The reintroduction of this two-fold system of general secondary education dates from the 1976/77 academic year, after an initial attempt in 1964/65 and 1966/67, which was terminated by the military regime. Prior to that, there was a single type of secondary school: the six-year Gymnasium.

a. The Gymnasium

In this phase, which consists of three classes (A, B, C), the lessons are general in character and are designed to complement and consolidate the elementary training acquired in primary school. The number of pupils per class is fixed at 35 or, exceptionally, at 40. If this number is exceeded, the class is sub-divided into sections.

There are public and private gymnasia providing normal education or evening classes for pupils in employment. The latter type began to decrease from 1977 onwards. This was the year in which compulsory education lasting nine years was introduced, entailing the following measures:

1. The former entrance exam to the gymnasium has been abolished, thereby giving all holders of the primary school certificate direct access to the gymnasium.

2. Ancient Greek literature is now taught at this level of study through the medium of modern Greek translations of ancient texts. Thus a considerable hurdle has been removed, with a view to rendering this subject accessible to all children in this age group.

3. Cultural and artistic activities have been introduced at a rate of two hours per week in addition to timetabled lessons. These are organised at the pupils' initiative in collaboration with their teachers.

4. Sports activities (three hours per week over and above the two hours of physical education) are organised, to introduce pupils to the world of sport.

5. School television has now been operating for three years and is available in almost all gymnasia. It provides support for teaching natural science, physics, chemistry, geography and, to some extent, history. Since the 1979/80 school year, it has been available in the first year of the lyceum and the last two years of primary schools.

6. Educational and vocational guidance was introduced on a trial basis in 1977/78 in 30 gymnasia in Athens and Salonika. In 1978/79 it was introduced in all gymnasia in Athens, Salonika, Volos, Patros and Janina (Ioannina). It is intended to extend the system to all gymnasia in the country as from the 1980/81 school year.

7. Lastly, the teaching of technological subjects has been organised on an experimental basis since the 1977/78 academic year in four gymnasia in Athens and the provinces. Last year, the system was extended to 19 gymnasia properly equipped to ensure the success of this form of teaching which is designed to familiarise all pupils in general education with the world of industry. The system is similar to what is known as "Arbeitslehre" in Germany.

Once attendance at the gymnasium had become compulsory, these curricular innovations appeared essential in order to provide a diversified programme preparing 15 year olds either for working life or for further study at the lyceum. It is moreover at this stage, namely the transfer from gymnasium to lyceum, that an entrance examination has been instituted. This clearly separates the two types of school, the former being designed for all children between 12 and 15 years of age while the latter is intended for those capable and desirous of pursuing their studies at upper secondary level.

b. <u>The Lyceum</u>

This level offers a more varied and intensive training for young people wishing to enter professions requiring specialised qualifications. The lyceum is therefore designed to cultivate oral and written skills more systematically, to allow a more detailed study of Greek and world (especially European) literature, history, and culture, to develop critical awareness, imagination and a knowledge of the natural and social environment, to strengthen religious conviction and the patriotic spirit to provide a fuller understanding of the principles of the national democratic system and, lastly, to improve the mind and form free and responsible individuals.

In the ordinary lyceum, the course of study lasts for three years, whereas those providing evening classes (for pupils in employment) offer a four-year course as they operate a curtailed weekly timetable (25 hours a week instead of 36 hours in the ordinary lyceum). There are both public and private secondary schools of this type, as has already been found to be the case with other levels of general education.

Under the afore-mentioned organic law, the number of pupils per class is fixed at 35 or, in exceptional circumstances, at 40.

Since the 1977-78 academic year, candidates for entry to the lyceum must pass a special examination, organised on a national scale, covering four subjects: composition (modern Greek), ancient Greek, mathematics, history or physics (according to choice).

There are two types of lyceum; the general lyceum and the technical and vocational lyceum, which shall be considered in the following chapter. The general lyceum category includes the classical lyceum. During the previous two school years, only 1 classical lyceum in fact functioned, in the suburb of Kifissia (10 kilometres north of Athens), while seven others were brought into service in 1979-80. In these schools, ancient Greek, Latin and history are taught more intensively. German is also taught as a second foreign language, the first foreign languages being either French or English.

From the legislative standpoint, all the different types of lyceum are absolutely equal. They are distinguished exclusively by their curriculum and their objectives. The general lyceum, which replaces the upper level of the former six-year gymnasium offers high-quality instruction, but does not train pupils for a job. The only opening they provide is higher education.

In this type of school, ancient Greek literature is studied from the original texts, stress being laid on the style and content of these works.

The entire lyceum curriculum is at present being rethought by the Centre for Education Research and Development (KEME). The recast programme of teaching subjects should be progressively introduced in the first year of the lyceum, beginning in the 1979-80 school year.

According to the new curriculum, a common core of general subjects is to be taught during this first year. In the second year, optional subjects were already introduced for the first time in 1978-79. The subjects concerned are not entirely optional, with the exception of Latin, but consist rather of a nucleus common to all pupils and optional subjects for those wishing to prepare for the corresponding course of study in higher education (see table below).

TABLE 7: WEEKLY TIMETABLE OF SUBJECTS TAUGHT IN THE SECOND AND THIRD (FINAL) YEARS OF THE GENERAL LYCEUM

Subjects	Periods	
A. Common Core	Class B	Class C
1. Religion	2	2
2. Modern Greek	4	4
3. Ancient Greek	5	4
4. History	2	2
5. Psychology	2	2 (Philosophy)
6. Mathematics	4	3
7. Physics - Chemistry	3	3
8. Foreign Language	2	2
9. Physical Education	3	3
10. Economic Geography	1	1 (Civics)
11. Anthropology - Hygiene	1	1 (Cosmography) (General Biology)
Total	29	28

B. Options	Streams			
	a.	b.	a.	b.
1. Ancient Greek	2		3	
2. History	2		2	
3. Latin	2		2	
4. Mathematics		3		4
5. Physics - Chemistry		3		3 (2-1)
Total	6	6	7	7
GRAND TOTAL	35	35	35	35

There are also plans to create a third optional stream (c) consisting of economic and social studies and intensive courses in modern languages. But there are at present many factors standing in the way of this project, a description of which would go beyond the scope of this study.

All pupils in the second and final years of the general lyceum have been required since 1978-79 to pass two types of examination at the end of the school year to determine their promotion or their future career:

a. a written examination held at the pupil's own school, supervised and marked by their teachers and covering the subjects of the common core, and

b. a second written examination on optional subjects and composition in modern Greek, organised in specially designated centres.

This latter examination is organised on a national scale and is known as the "panhellenic examination". In June 1979, only second-year pupils attending the lyceum sat this examination, for the system of optional subjects was not introduced until last year.

From 1980 onwards, there will be two types of school leaving certificate delivered by the lyceum: the "type I apolytirion" corresponding to the literary course (ancient Greek, Latin, history) and the "type II apolytirion" corresponding to the scientific course (mathematics, physics, chemistry).

The reorganisation of the lyceum curriculum and the examination system for second- and third-year pupils was carried out with the aim of reforming the selection system for candidates wishing to enter higher education. This subject will be dealt with again in a later chapter.

II. Secondary technical and vocational education

There are two types of school training young people for working life or higher occupational studies: the technical and vocational school and the technical and vocational lyceum. These two types of establishment follow on from compulsory education and, since the 1977-78 school year, their intake has consisted of pupils holding the gymnasium leaving certificate (apolytirion). But they differ in the length and standard of course they provide and also in the qualification which they offer.

The great majority of such schools come under the Ministry of National Education, only 10% coming within the competence of other authorities, such as the Ministries of Employment, Social Services, Agriculture, Justice and Transport and the Prime Minister's Office (Educational Statistics for 1974-75, Greek National Statistical Service, Athens, 1978, p. 126).

a. Technical and vocational schools

These are intended to consolidate the general training acquired in the gymnasium and, in particular, to develop pupils' skills and knowledge to enable them to specialise in the occupation of their choice. Courses last between two and four semesters, according to the special subject chosen; this may be increased by one or two semesters for pupils in day-time employment enrolled for evening classes.

All holders of the gymnasium leaving certificate or an equivalent qualification have right of direct access to these schools without having to pass an entrance examination of any kind. These establishments have the lowest status among technical schools and their courses lead to jobs requiring a minimum of occupational qualifications.

If holders of a leaving certificate from these technical schools wish, they may transfer to the third semester of a technical and vocational lyceum, provided they pass the special entrance examination. This procedure enables them to re-enter the stream leading to higher education (see organisational chart).

b. Technical and vocational lyceums

Technical and vocational lyceums start at the same level of attainment as for the general lyceum, namely the gymnasium apolytirion and they have the same admission requirements. The entrance examination is organised on a national scale according to the same arrangements and during the same periods (June and September) as for the general lyceum. The new legislation treats both types of lyceum on an equal footing. The only difference lies in the fact that technical studies prepare pupils not only for higher education, but also for taking up a job.

Courses normally extend over six semesters, or eight semesters in the case of pupils attending evening courses. They comprise compulsory theoretical and practical lessons corresponding to each literary and scientific specialty and classes on the democratic organisation of the state.

Technical lyceums have various sections for training:

i. engineers (mechanics)
ii. electricians and electronics technicians
iii. civil engineers
iv. chemists and metallurgists

Vocational lyceums comprise the following sections:

i. economy and administration
ii. agriculture and livestock breeding
iii. social services.

Each section consists of various branches covering a whole range of different special subjects.

Finally, the leaving certificate from a technical and vocational lyceum confers the same rights and opportunities as the "type II apolytirion" (corresponding to the science course in a general lyceum) provided the holder has studied the same optional subjects as those taught in lyceums.

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Pupils attending a technical and vocational lyceum are not obliged to choose these optional subjects. In this case, their certificate does not entitle them to attend a university-type establishment, but does give them access to non-university higher education (advanced technical and vocational colleges, colleges of education, colleges of physical education). The last two years of attendance at both the technical and vocational lyceum and the general lyceum have been organised since 1978 in accordance with this new selection procedure for entry to higher education.

A clear tendency may be observed in favour of attributing equal status to technical education and general education from the legislative point of view. Admittedly, passing laws is not enough in itself. But the first step has been taken to enhance the value of technical education, which was formerly underestimated by public opinion. Until 1976, there were two watertight, mutually exclusive systems: the six-year gymnasium, which alone led to higher education of university standard, and secondary technical education which gave access only to non-university higher education (see organisation chart). With the new legislation, lower technical schools (for children of 12-15 years of age) have disappeared with the advent of compulsory schooling of 9 years' duration. And the "apolytirion" obtained in a technical and vocational lyceum has the same value as the "apolytirion" of the general lyceum. This is the major structural innovation in our education system and it offers the hope of doing away with the dividing line which in our system, as elsewhere, traditionally separates technical education and general education.

With the same end in view, holders of a non-university higher technical education diploma have been given the chance of enrolling in the second year of the Polytechnic School and in sections corresponding to their specialty, after passing the relevant aptitude test (Presidential Decree 879/1977, article 1). Thus, even if a pupil in a technical lyceum has not followed the optional course enabling him to obtain the type II apolytirion and take part in the selection tests for university and other higher institutes, he may nevertheless, on completing his non-university higher technical studies, obtain access to university education by this alternative route (see organisational chart).

3.1.4 Higher education

This level of education is divided into two categories in accordance with the international model adopted by UNESCO: university education and non-university higher education. The former leads to a university degree after a minimum of four years' study, equivalent to the upper level of university education, and the latter to a non-university diploma after a minimum of two years' study, equivalent to the lower level of university education, to use the international teminology.

The following institutions have full university status: the Universities of Athens, Salonika, Janina, Patras, Thrace and Crete, the Polytechnic School, the College of Economy and Commerce, the College of Political Science (known as the "Pantios"), the Piraeus and Salonika Colleges of Industry, the College of Agriculture and the Academy of Fine Arts. The military academies also belong to this category.

Non-university institutes of higher education include the teacher training colleges for primary school, nursery school, domestic science and physical education, all the technical and vocational colleges and the ecclesiastical seminaries for training members of the clergy, who may also study at a university faculty of theology.

All university establishments and colleges of education are public and come under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of National Education and Religion, whereas many of the technical and vocational teaching establishments are private or come under other ministries, as indicated in the following tables:

a. Technical and vocational colleges

Academic year	Total number: 116
1974-75	i. public 57
	ii. private 59

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b. Higher technical and vocational education

Competent Authority	All colleges		Technical colleges		Vocational colleges		Ecclesiastical colleges	
	Colleges	Students	Colleges	Students	Colleges	Students	Colleges	Students
Total	116	13,682	39	7,890	72	5.397	5	395
Ministry of Education	44	8,285	39	7,890	-	-	5	395
Ministry of Social Services	17	2.005	-	-	17	2,005	-	-
Ministry of the Mercantile Marine	16	1,926	-	-	16	1.926	-	-
inistry of Culture and Science	37	1,190	-	-	37	1.190	-	-
Prime Minister's Office	2	276	-	-	2	276	-	-

Source: Education Statistics for 1974-75, Greek National Statistical Service, Athens, 1978, pp 226-227

To qualify for entrance to higher education, it is essential to obtain the lyceum apolytirion. Owing to the limited numbers accepted by higher education establishments however, it has been necessary - since 1932 - to organise a national examination to select higher education candidates. Examinees are classified by order of merit according to the marks obtained in this competitive examination and the general mark of their lyceum apolytirion. Each higher education establishment accepts a preestablished number of students.

This system of selection is due to change as a result of the reorganisation of the second and final years of lyceum education entailed by the introduction of options. From 1980 onwards, candidates for higher education will be admitted on the basis of the field of study chosen and an attainment grade consisting of the average of 10 marks: the general mark obtained in the second year of lyceum, the general score in the apolytirion, the four marks obtained in the panhellenic examination (Greek composition and the three second-year options studied) and, finally, the four marks obtained in the national examinations in the same optional subjects in their final year.

In this respect, the new type of selection is much fairer to dilligent pupils, since the new panhellenic examinations relate exclusively to those subjects taught during the school year, whereas the former selection examination was based on all subjects which were supposed to have been taught at secondary school.

It should be pointed out that this selection procedure is destined for candidates to higher education establishments of university standard. In the case of candidates to non-university higher education, the marks taken into account are not those obtained in the panhellenic examinations, but the score in certain subject appearing in the second-year school reports and in the candidate's aploytirion.

The new selection system for candidates to higher education was adopted by parliament (Act 1035/80) in order to be applied, from 1980 onwards, to holders of the leaving certificate of the general lyceum and the technical and vocational lyceum.

3.1.5 Role and relative importance of public and private institutions

It is necessary first of all to point out that the legislation governing public education also applies to private education. Classwork, curricula, textbooks and examinations are all organised along the same lines in public and private establishments. All private schools are supervised by the Ministry of National Education. It is for this reason that private education plays only a minor part in the process of educational reform. A very limited number of private establishments implement a policy of experiments with classwork and schoolbooks.

In numerical terms, private education is more prevalent at the pre-school level and, above all, in secondary and higher technical education(see table No. 8) because both of these sectors were late in developing and the official efforts of the state have not yet succeeded in making up for the shortcoming.

The records show that 14.9% of children attending nursery schools are enrolled in private establishments, whereas for secondary and higher technical vocational education the percentages are respectively 49.9% and 37.5%.

TABLE 8: DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS AND STUDENTS AT THE VARIOUS LEVELS OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN THE 1974-75 ACADEMIC YEAR

Educational level	Total		Public		Private		% of private
	Total	Girls	Total	Girls	Total	Girls	
Total	1,804,474	812,749	1,577,860	729.570	226.614	83.179	12.5%
Pre-school: pupils	109,643	53,311	93,296	45,725	16,347	7,586	14.9%
schools	3,258		2,861		397		12.1%
Primary : pupils	929,906	446,610	855,785	412,073	74,121	34,537	7.9%
schools	9,729		9,031		698		7.1%
Secondary	653,484	273,413	522,395	233,743	131,089	39.670	20.0%
- General : pupils	519,367	255,393	454,805	227,199	64,562	28.194	12.4%
pupils	1,137		847		290		25.5%
- Technical-Vocational:	132,897	18,020	66,555	6,544	66,342	11,474	49.9%
schools	1,407		746		661		46.9%
- Ecclesiastical: pupils	1,220	-	1,035	-	185		15,%
schools	8		8				
Tertiary	111,441	39,415	106,384	38.029	5.057	1,386	
- university	92,920	32,685	92,920	32,685	-	-	
- non-university (normal)	4,839	3,028	4,839	3,028	-	-	
- non-university (technical-vocational)	13,287	3,702	8,295	2,316	4,992	1,386	37.5%
Schools	111		53		58		52.2%
- Non-university (ecclesiastical)	395	-	330	-	65	-	16.4%
Schools	5		4		1		20.0%

Source: Education statistics for 1974-75, Greek National Statistical Service, Athens, 1978

It should also be noted that three-quarters of the private nursery schools are to be found in the Athens area, namely 302 private schools of the 397 (76%) in the country as a whole, which cater for 12,091 pupils, ie 73.9% of the national total of 16,347 (Source: op.cit.pp 17-23).

The same situation is to be found in secondary, technical and vocational education. More than half of the private technical and vocational schools are situated in the metropolitan area, namely 388 out of the 661 establishments in the country as a whole, ie 58.7%. These cater for 41,266 pupils of the 66,527 enrolled in all private technical and vocational schools, ie 62% (Source: op.cit. pp 128-129 and 162-163).

As for higher technical and vocational education, it can merely be said, in the absence of data concerning technical education, that of the 77 vocational schools in the country, 47 are private, of which 40 (ie 85.1%) are situated in the metropolitan area and cater for 2,203 students (94.7%) of the 2,325 attending private schools of this kind (Source: op.cit. pp 243 and 257).

For some years, however, there has been a gradual fall in the number of private institutions at the different levels of general education. (No data are available concerning technical and vocational education). Between 1972/73 and 1977/78 for example, whereas the total school population rose from 1,486,271 to 1,635,734 pupils, the number of pupils in private schools fell from 150,955 to 129,356. In other words, while these pupils represented 10.1% of the total school population in general education in 1972/73, they accounted for only 7.9% in 1977/78 (Source: Information Bulletin No.7, Greek National Statistical Service, Athens 1978).

But there is one particular field in which private teaching establishments continue to flourish: namely, foreign language tuition, especially in French and English. At a press conference given by the representatives of the Federation of Private Schools, summarised in the daily newspaper "TA NEA" of 28 April 1979, it was announced that there were some 1,500 private institutions in the country, 1,000 of which were situated in the Athens prefecture, which included the capital city.

Certain of these private establishments are sponsored by foreign governments, such as the "Institut Français d'Athènes" (which also has several branches in the provinces), the British Council, the "Casa d'Italia", the "Goethe Institut". These are more than mere foreign language schools; they are all-round centres representing the national culture of the corresponding country in Greece.

Supervision of the Greek state over all these private institutions is very limited and is restricted to granting them a permit issued by the Ministry of National Education, provided they fulfil the necessary operational conditions (suitable premises and staff), in accordance with Act No. 682.1977.

3.2 *TEACHING RESOURCES, TEXTBOOKS, MEDIA, FACILITIES AVAILABLE*

School textbooks are issued free to pupils at all levels of education, from primary school to university. They are printed after selection based on public tender, the terms of which are published in the Official Government Gazette. A committee set up by Ministerial Decree selects, after due deliberation, the work which it considers to be best and has it published at state expense by the School Textbook Publishers. The books are then distributed to the pupils concerned.

When texts are urgently required, however, the Minister of Education may commission a textbook from recognised specialists, whose work will then be submitted for approval to a selection committee before being adopted as a school textbook.

In this way, all pupils throughout the country use the same textbook for a given school subject. This uniformity gives rise to inflexibility, which seems to be an inevitable corollary of the free issue scheme.

When school television was introduced, the Ministry of National Education supplied state schools with the necessary sets and equipment. A start was made with gymnasia in 1977-78 and more than 80% of these are now equipped, a by no means negligible achievement. This year, school television was extended to the lyceum and primary schools.

School programmes are broadcast simultaneously throughout the country over the National Television Network. There is at present no closed-circuit television in Greek schools.

There are two ways of obtaining the teaching equipment required: either on the open market, at home or abroad, or from the manufacturing firm operated by the Central Department of the Ministry of National Education. According to an annual plan of supply, all schools are gradually being provided with the necessary teaching resources. To illustrate this example, the main teaching aids available in the different categories of school are described below.

Nursery schools receive musical equipment, special maps, marionettes, record players and records, painting easels, teaching materials of all kinds, made of wood, plastic etc. The following items have been supplied to primary schools: maps and wall-charts for geography, history, astronomy, natural sciences and chemistry, portraits of historical or religious personages, anatomy models (human skeleton, eye, ear, teeth etc), colour-slides, overhead transparencies, super-8 cassettes, all types of projector, including super-8 cine projectors, duplicating machines (roneo), tape-recorders, typewriters, cine films, public address systems and complete series of experimental apparatus for physics and chemistry.

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In secondary schools, gymnasia and lyceums receive teaching resources similar to those described above with, in addition, extra unrecorded tapes for foreign language tuition, film-strips with the appropriate projectors, 16 mm and 8 mm projectors, microscopes and collections of rocks and minerals. The Central Department of the Ministry of National Education also operates a film library with a fairly full stock of films which may be hired by schools on request.

No special mention need be made here of the equipment required for practical work in technical and vocational schools, which varies according to the specialty taught. Finally, higher education establishments enjoy not only economic but also, and above all, administrative autonomy and each is free to settle the problem of teaching resources according to its preferences.

3.3 METHODS AND PROSPECTS OF REFORM

Teaching methods obviously vary according to the type of school and the educational level.

In the case of the nursery school, one cannot talk of teaching methods in the strict sense of the term, since there is no attempt to impart theoretical knowledge to the young children. It is rather by means of pictures, drawings, songs and especially games that staff endeavour to help them discover the components of their natural and social environment and facilitate their socialisation.

At primary school level, a distinction may be drawn between instruction in reading and writing and the teaching of other subjects. Two methods are used to teach reading and writing: the global method and the analytic-synthetic method. In certain schools, the Cuisiner method of learning to count is also used. For the teaching of other subjects, the demonstration and the question-and-answer methods are mainly used.

These last-mentioned methods are also applied in secondary schools, but they consist of three phases: firstly, the general subject matter of the lesson is introduced, then the various aspects are explained in detail, and, finally, a series of exercises is performed. This method is in fact merely a condensation of Herbart's theory of the five phases of learning. It should be borne in mind that almost all our educationists engaged in post-graduate study in Germany in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Despite the many reforms of our education system, this theory has survived and continues to be advocated by the Secondary Teacher's In-Service Training School which shall be described below.

At universities and colleges, the predominant method used is the lecture. It is only in recent years that the tutorial system with smaller groups has been introduced and applied by the junior staff in their respective departments.

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Active methods and group work are not yet employed in Greek schools. It is true, however, that the use of group work has progressed thanks to the new ideas and initiatives resulting from the introduction of extra-curricular cultural activities in gymnasia. There is hope that these new working methods may have a beneficial impact on teaching practises in general, but for the time being no experiments have been attempted.

3.4 STYLE OF TEACHING AND EDUCATIONAL RELATIONSHIPS

The time is past when the teacher's authority was never contested by pupils in our schools. Up until the 1960s, especially in the provinces, the mere fact of being appointed to a teaching post earned a person the respect of pupils and parents. A teacher did not only dispense knowledge, he was an "educator" who helped to forge the character of his pupils. In those days, the style of teaching and pupil-teacher relationships were authoritarian in nature.

Since the middle of the last decade however, this style has changed and the trend has been towards a form of collaboration in which the teacher's opinion, especially in secondary schools, is no longer imposed upon the pupils. Discussion and the free expression of pupils' ideas have greatly improved the climate of school work. Pupils no longer passively accept everything proposed by the teacher in class. They even question the value of certain precepts which they are taught and, consequently, need to be persuaded to accept what is taught to them. They regard their teacher as a collaborator in the process of acquiring learning, and no longer as the sole depositary and vector of knowledge.

Finally, three years ago, a new institution was founded in secondary schools: Pupil's Societies, designed to familiarise them with the principles of the democratic system, self-management and the give-and-take of the decision making process. The members of a class form a society which elects representatives to form an administrative panel. A programme of cultural activities compatible with the aims of national education is drawn up. Such societies generally function according to rules of procedure devised by the Ministry of National Education; they also receive the help of a councillor chosen by the headmaster from among the class teachers. Despite the restrictions embodied in the rule of procedure, these pupils' societies are a tangible sign that a change has taken place in the educational relationships inside schools.

3.5 TEACHING CONDITIONS

Between 1960/61 and 1974/75, the entire school population rose from 1,317,590 to 1,804,474 pupils, ie an increase of 37%, whereas population figures in the 5-24 age group remained almost stable (2,799,958 as against 2,787,101, ke a drop of 0.5%) during the same period. The demographic factor is not the only explanation for this development in the Greek school system; the rapid growth is due rather to a steep rise in educational demand, the new requirements of the economy and the increase in the number of working women.

The growth in pupil numbers was not uniform at all levels of education (see Table 9). The greatest increase is to be found in higher education (294%), then in pre-school education (172%) and, lastly, in secondary education (99.4%). By contrast, the school population in primary education shows remarkable stability over the same period.

TABLE 9: TREND IN SCHOOL NUMBERS BY LEVEL AND TYPE OF EDUCATION FROM 1960/61 TO 1974/75

School year / Educational level	1960/61	1965/66	1970/71	1974/75	Rate of growth from 1960/61 to 1974/75
General total	1,317,590	1,535,975	1,647,556	1,804,474	37.0%
1. Pre-school	40,247	52,253	87,087	109,643	172.0%
2. Primary	921,262	975,869	919,984	929,906	0.9%
3. Secondary:	327.779	440.479	554,709	653,484	99.4%
a. general	273,390	374,616	456,408	519,367	90.0%
b. technical-vocational	54,389	65,863	98,301	134,117	146.6%
4. Higher	28.302	67,374	85,776	111,441	294.0%
a. university	25,658	54,261	72,269	92,920	261.9%
b. non-university					
i. Colleges of Education	2,644	3,739	3,929	4,839	83.0%
ii. Technical and Vocation Colleges	(1)	9,374	9,578	13,682	46.0% (2)

(1) Included with technical-vocational secondary education

(2) Rate of growth from 1965/66 to 1975/75

Source: Education statistics for the corresponding years, Greek National Statistical Office, Athens

TABLE 10: RATE (1) OF ATTENDANCE ACCORDING TO AGE GROUPS AND EDUCATIONAL LEVEL, AND GROWTH INDEX BETWEEN 1961 AND 1971.

Age	All levels			Pre-school			Primary			General Secondary			Technical-vocational (2)			Higher		
	1961	1971	Index	1961	1971	Index	1961	1971	Index	1961	1971	Index	1961	1971	Index	1961	1971	Index
3-5 years	10.9	19.0	190	10.0	19.0	190												
6-11 years	97.3	98.2	101				97.1	96.1	99	0.1	2.1	1.544	0.014	0.096	686			
12-17 years	44.4	61.9	139				10.2	6.7	66	30.2	48.7	161	3.9	6.5	167			
18-23 years	8.8	18.4	209							3.2	4.3	134	2.6	6.9	265	3.0	7.2	240

(1) Rate of attendance:

This is the ratio between pupil numbers in a given age or age group and the total number of children in the corresponding age or age group.

(2) The figures for technical-vocational education includes all levels from secondary to higher.

Source: G Spyropoulos, "Politiques d'admission dans l'enseignement post-secondaire en Grèce", SME/ET 78.28 OECD Paris, 26 June 1978

Considering moreover that, until 1976, compulsory schooling was limited to the primary school, it may be said that primary education has been totally democratised (a rate of school attendance of 96.1% and a minimum deviation between the national average and the rate observed in the various regions). See tables No. 10 and 11.

At the other levels of education, where schooling was non-compulsory equality of opportunity for all children in every region is still remote. It is in fact at these other levels of education that we find the lowest rates of school attendance (see tables No. 10) and the widest variations according to region, compared with primary education (see table No. 11).

Where pre-school education is concerned, the highest rates of attendance are to be found in northern Greece, (Epirus, Thessaly, Macedonia). This is due to a special policy of support implemented after the Civil War (1946-49) from which these provinces suffered most heavily. The "village hostel" system was devised to ensure adequate living and training conditions for children in these areas. In addition, a larger number of nursery schools were built than in the other provinces.

Regarding general and technical secondary education, the metropolitan area shows the highest figures of school attendance, far in excess of the national average. For technical secondary education, the two major cities, Athens and Salonika, offer the best opportunities for the vocational training of young people.

As regards higher education, there are several areas where the rate of attendance is higher than the national average. Considering however, that this column of table No. 11 is based on the place of residence of students' parents and that not all regions have a university, it is impossible to reach any valid conclusion regarding the equality of opportunity for attendance at higher education establishments in relation to students' region of origin.

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TABLE 11: RATE OF SCHOOL ATTENDANCE BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AND BY REGION IN 1971 (1)

Region	Pre-school	Primary	General Secondary	Technical Secondary (2)	Higher (3)
Whole of Greece	19.0%	96.1%	48.7%	11.8%	9.1%
Metropolitan area	12.6%	94.7%	59.3%	21.0%	10.4%
Central Greece and Euboea	14.0%	96.5%	41.3%	7.0%	6.6%
Peloponnese	9.4%	96.5%	49.1%	6.1%	12.5%
Ionian islands	8.8%	97.5%	41.7%	3.8%	11.3%
Epirus	33.9%	98.1%	42.1%	7.8%	10.1%
Thessaly	21 3%	96.1%	46.8%	7.5%	10.1%
Macedonia	33.5%	96.9%	46.5%	13.2%	7.6%
Thrace	17.1%	93.0%	30.7%	4.3%	3.7%
Aegean islands	10.9%	96.7%	42.9%	4.5%	7.0%
Crete	16.6%	97.1%	51.9%	9.7%	11.9%

(1) Source: a. Results of census of population and homes, 14 March 1971 (sample survey based on 25% of replies to census questionnaires) volume II, Greek National Statistical Office, Athens 1975.

b. Education statistics for 1970/71, Greek National Statistical Office, Athens.

(2) This is a ratio (and not a rate) of school attendance ie pupil numbers of any age as a proportion of the corresponding age group of the general population. The rate cannot be calculated here since pupil numbers by age at these two levels of education are not available.

(3) Does not include numbers in technical and vocational education, nor students enrolled in foreign universities. (Source: study conducted for OECD by G Spyropoulos and published under the title: "Politiques d'admission dans l'enseignement post-secondaire en Grèce" - SME/ET/78.28, Paris, 26 June 1978. (restricted). This attendance ratio is calculated on the basis of the place of residence of students' parents.

In addition, teaching staff numbers are increasing more quickly than the school population. Hence the improvement in the teacher/pupil ratio at all levels of education, but above all in nursery and secondary school (see table No. 12). This ratio varies from region to region, as illustrated in table No. 13.

It will be seen first of all that, in the metropolitan area, the teacher/pupil ratio at every level of education is fairly high and at any rater higher than the national average, especially in primary education. It is no rare occurrence for our teachers to have to cope with excess numbers. The same is true except with regard to pre-school education of the Macedonian region where Salonika, the second largest town in Greece, is situated.

A comparison between the pre-school education columns of table No.13 and table No. 5 shows that the lowest teacher/pupil ratios are to be found in the northern regions of Greece, where pre-school education is more widespread.

Also, contrary to the situation in primary schools, it is more frequent to find overcrowded classes in private secondary schools than in the public sector. An analysis of this phenomenon would be interesting, but goes beyond the scope of this study.

There would appear to be a more appreciable shortage of teachers at primary school level. This shortage cannot be ascribed to a lack of interest for the teaching profession, since holders of Teacher Training Colleges diplomas or qualifications from University Departments of Education have to wait an average of three to four years before being officially appointed to a post in public education. The problem is, rather, the direct result of budgetary difficulties and is dependent on the general economic policy of the country.

Notwithstanding, teaching conditions are gradually improving from year to year, bringing an improvement in the quality of education provided to young people.

TABLE 12

a. *Trend in numbers of school children in general education between 1972/73 and 1977/78*

Year	Total pupils	Pre-school	Primary	General Secondary
1972/73	1.499.271	98.626	909.246	488.219
1977/78	1.635.734	122.638	931.860	581.236
Percentage increase 1977/78 / 1972/73	9.3%	24.3%	2.5%	19.1%

b. *Teaching staff in general education between 1972/73 and 1977/78*

Year	Total pupils	Pre-school	Primary	General Secondary
1972/73	47.604	3.246	28.962	15.396
1977/78	63.046	4.978	33.816	24.252
Percentage increase 1977/78 / 1972/73	32.4%	53.4%	16.8%	57.5%

c. *Average pupil/teacher ratio in general education between 1972/73 and 1977/78*

Year	Total pupils	Pre-school	Primary	General Secondary
1972/73	31.4	30.4	31.4	31.7
1977/78	25.9	24.6	27.6	24.0

Source: Information bulletin No. 7, Greek National Statistical Service, Athens 1978 (simplified data).

TABLE 13: PUPIL TEACHER RATIO ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AND GEOGRAPHICAL REGION DURING THE 1974/75 ACADEMIC YEAR

	Pre-school	Primary	General Secondary (1)
Whole country	27.2	30.4	28.4
1. Metropolitan area	29.5	36.5	32.3
2. Central Greece and Euboea	32.2	30.0	25.6
3. Peloponnese	33.0	27.0	26.2
4. Ionian islands	30.2	26.3	23.8
5. Epirus	19.0	22.4	24.6
6. Thessaly	26.6	29.3	28.7
7. Macedonia	25.7	32.3	29.6
8. Thrace	20.9	23.0	28.6
9. Aegean islands	32.4	28.5	20.8
10. Crete	29.3	27.8	29.1

Source: Education statistics for 1974/75, Greek National Statistical Service, Athens 1978

(1) The ratio has been calculated only for pupils attending secondary day school. It was not possible to calculate the figure for evening schools and technical and professional schools, since not all teachers in these establishments work full time. In the latter schools, there are also several categories of staff whose status and timetables vary widely.

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3.6 SYSTEM OF ASSESSMENT AND CONDITIONS FOR ADVANCEMENT

The system of assessment consists of continuous testing throughout the academic year; a final examination; or, a combination of these two forms. The main aim is to assess the pupil's ability to retain knowledge and his personal judgment. In practice, however, oral and written examinations lay greater stress on memory than on personal judgment. Solving a problem, whether theoretical or practical, literary or scientific, by means of personal reasoning by the pupil or student takes only a very small place in our assessment system.

This does not mean that our pupils perform no personal work during their school career, but this form of activity is not taken into consideration for promotion to a higher class. Very little has therefore been done so far in our schools to train pupils in personal research work and exercises in advanced intellectual reasoning.

In nursery schools, there is no question of any assessment and, accordingly, no criteria for promotion. Pupils are never required to repeat a year.

In primary schools, school work is marked on a scale of 1 to 10 (5 being the pass mark). Pupils' promotion is decided by the teacher, who assesses their oral and written work during the school year. Since 1977, there has been no primary school final examination. The number of pupils repeating a class is small, namely 32,042 out of 929,906, ie 3.4% for the country as a whole in 1974/75 (Greek National Statistical Service, 1974/75 Education Statistics, p. 37, Athens 1978).

In secondary schools, gymnasia and lyceums, pupils' exercises are marked on a scale of 1 to 20 (10 being the pass mark). The promotion of pupils is decided by the staff council of the school on the basis of the marks obtained throughout the school year and the mark for the written paper in the final examination of each subject. Each school year is divided into three terms. Each pupil is awarded three marks for each subject, representing his oral mark (even if these results are based on written tests). At the end of the school year, there is a written examination in each subject of the curriculum. The mark obtained in this examination, multiplied by two, is added to the three oral marks for the subject concerned and the sum of these is divided by five, giving the final subject mark to be entered on the pupil's report, which accompanies him as he advances from one school year to the next.

If a pupil obtains an average of ten for each subject, he is promoted to the following class. If his mark is less than ten in between 1 and 4 subjects - according to their importance - he may still be promoted by means of combining these marks with his score in certain other subjects. If his attainment is inadequate in between 1 and 4 subjects and if, in addition, he is unable to combine them with other subject marks to achieve the pass mark, in accordance with the relevant regulations, he has to pass an additional examination limited to these subjects in September before the beginning of the new school term. In cases of clearly inadequate performance, the pupil is obliged to repeat the year.

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In secondary schools, the number of pupils repeating is higher than in primary schools, namely 41,335 out of 505,770 ie 8.1% for the country as a whole in 1974/75 (Greek National Statistical Service, Education Statistics 1974/75, p. 89, Athens 1978).

In higher education establishments, there is a final examination at the end of each academic year, in which a student must obtain the pass mark (five out of a maximum of ten) in each subject in order to obtain promotion. This final examination is a written one in the majority of higher establishments, but it may be oral if the teacher so desires. If a student fails, he may resit twice for the subject concerned during examination periods arranged by each higher establishment for a number of subjects which varies according to the faculty or higher establishment.

Where practical work is prescribed in the university curriculum, a student must have attended in accordance with rules laid down by each faculty, in order to qualify for sitting the final examination in the subject concerned.

If a candidate passes the final examination which is held in the last year of study in every university or higher education establishment, he qualifies for a degree or diploma. This measure was introduced in 1972. Formerly, the final examination was a separate affair passed on completion of a supplementary year of study during which all the subjects taught during the university course had to be revised.

3.7 SCHOOL-LEAVING CERTIFICATES AND REPORTS, SECONDARY AND POST-SECONDARY SCHOOL ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

Details have already been given, during the description of the various stages of education, of the type and role of the different leaving certificates and entrance requirements for secondary and post-secondary education. To sum up, there are three types of certificate: one at the end of primary studies, another at the end of the gymnasium course, the lower stage of secondary education, and a third at the end of the lyceum course, the upper stage of secondary education. Finally, a degree is awarded on the successful completion of a university or non-university course of higher education.

Entrance to the gymnasium is automatic after finishing primary school. Entrance to the lyceum (whether general lyceum or technical and vocational lyceum) depends on a nationwide examination. Access to higher education is by means of a competitive examination, the arrangements for which were described in the relevant chapter.

3.8 QUALIFICATIONS DEMANDED OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY TEACHERS, INITIAL AND IN-SERVICE TRAINING

The qualifications for primary school teachers differ in type and standard from those of secondary school teachers. The former are "all-rounders", the latter are specialists. One group is trained in non-university higher institutions, the majority of the other group in university establishments. Today there is a tendency in some quarters in favour of upgrading Colleges of Education.

I. Initial training

a. Training of primary school teachers

The requirement for recruiting prospective primary teachers is the Greek school leaving certificate, ie the lyceum "apolytirion". But only 50% of the places available in Colleges of Education are attributed to candidates on this basis of selection. The remaining places are awarded, by order or merit, to candidates with a leaving certificate average mark of more than 17.5 out of a maximum score of 20. This measure is designed to attract top performers from the lyceum into the primary teaching profession.

Prospective primary teachers are trained in the 14 Primary Teacher Training Colleges known as "Pedagogical Academies", and in the four Nursery Teacher Training Colleges situated in all regions of the country.

The training course lasts two years and covers all subjects taught at primary school, together with teaching methods, child psychology and philosophy. Considerable time is devoted to the practical training of the student-teachers who attend demonstration lessons in the pilot schools attached to each training college. Here, the students do practice lessons under the supervision of their instructors and then analyse and assess their performance in subsequent discussions.

The short duration of this training course and its rather encyclopaedic character have prompted primary teachers to demand university-level training. Preliminary draft legislation has been drawn up by the national education authorities which proposes abolishing the present "Pedagogical Acadamies" and creating colleges of education of university standard, self-governed like all higher education establishments and comprising a three-year course of study. But the project has been the subject of interminable discussions for the last two years.

b. Training of secondary school teachers

The recruitment of secondary school teachers also depends on the possession of the Greek school leaving certificate. Prospective secondary teachers are admitted to university faculties in accordance with the general selection procedure already described.

By and large, a distinction is drawn between two categories of secondary teacher, depending on the type of higher establishment attended and the duration of study.

The first category includes teachers trained for four years in University Faculties of Theology, Arts, Philosophy, Mathematics and Science. Candidates who complete their course successfully obtain a university degree.

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The second category includes teachers of physical education, trained for four years in the National Physical Training Colleges, teachers of drawing and painting, trained for four years in the Academy of Fine Arts, teachers of domestic science (for girls 'gymnasia' only) trained for three years at a Domestic Science College, and teachers of music trained in Conservatories for six to nine years during and after their secondary studies. Apart from the Academy of Fine Arts, the other teacher-training establishments belong to the non-university category of higher education institutions.

Teachers in the first category receive more specialised training. In addition, they enjoy superior status and salary. Finally, their career allows them to reach the top of the hierarchical scale, since they alone may obtain posts of headmaster, Inspector-General or head of an education area.

Teachers in the second category have a very broad, though more superficial, programme of study covering a great many subjects. Music and art teachers receive training in their special branch without acquiring a general culture of university level.

As regards teacher training, the former group spend part of their final year of university study attending classes, for two or three hours a week, in general teaching theory, educational psychology, teaching methods and special methods for their individual subject. Their practical training consists of attending lessons, as mere spectators, in the experimental lyceum attached to each University Chair of Education.

Teachers of the second category acquire only the rudiments of pedagogical training.

After obtaining their specialist qualification and without receiving any further professional grounding, they are appointed a post in a secondary school. Their preparation for this task would thus appear to be inadequate. For the time being, there are no signs of reform of the teacher-training system.

II. In service training

In-service training is optional for teachers at every level. There is so far no compulsory system of refresher training at fixed and regular intervals.

The types of in-service training offered to primary and secondary teachers are similar. They may be classified in four categories:

a. Long-term refresher courses (two years). This is an institutionalised form of in-service training provided by the Advanced College of Primary Education (Didaskaleion Maraslion Dimotikis Ekpedefseos, DMDE) in the case of primary school teachers, and the Advanced College of Secondary Education (Didaskaleion Messis Ekpedefseos, DME) in the case of secondary teachers. These institutions are situated in Athens and

respectively cater each year for 120-130 primary school teachers and 80-100 secondary school teachers selected by means of competitive examination. The trainees follow courses full time - they are temporarily relieved of their teaching duties - and are paid an amount equal to one-quarter of their monthly salary.

b. Short-term refresher courses (one year). This is a very recent form of in-service training introduced three years ago for secondary school teachers and one year ago for primary school teachers. It is organised by the Primary Teachers' In-Service Training School (Scholi Epimorphosseos Litoyrguon Dimotikis Ekpedefseos - SELDE) in the case of primary school teachers and the Secondary Teachers' In-Service School (Scholi Epimorphosseos Litoyrguon Messis Ekpedefseos - SELME) in the case of secondary school teachers. There are two schools for each level of education, one in Athens and the other in Salonika, which cater each year for 210-230 primary school and 310 secondary school teachers, selected by the Central Department of the Ministry of National Education without examination but on the basis of their record. It is planned to operate two other SELME in-service training schools from 1980-81 onwards. It would therefore appear that these training schools meet the requirements of a greater number of teachers and their foundation is therefore justified, particularly for counter-balancing the élitist character of long-term in-service training.

The syllabus for these two types of course is designed along similar lines. They consist of further study of each subject, a revision of pedagogical theory and practice sessions, which, according to numerous trainees, form the most interesting and profitable part of the courses. The practical exercises consist in watching model lessons and then delivering test lessons, followed by discussions and analyses by the trainees and their instructors.

c. Bursaries and leave of absence to study abroad. Bursaries awarded by the state on the strength of competitive examinations provide an opportunity for a small number of teachers in primary and secondary education to engage in further training abroad. Primary school teachers generally attend courses in pedagogy and psychology whereas secondary teachers prefer to take refresher courses in their own specialty.

d. Teacher seminars. These are organised on the initiative of primary and secondary school inspectors on a regional basis, offering teachers of all levels the opportunity to improve their knowledge of certain educational subjects. They are limited in scope and of very brief duration (two or three days). They tend to take the form of conferences on teaching methods for the various subjects taught, school discipline etc.

At all events, as long as in-service training of school teachers remains optional, it will fail to meet the needs of the entire teaching profession in this respect. Moreover, the fact that candidates for in-service training courses are chosen from among the most able teachers excludes the very ones who would find these courses beneficial, indeed indispensable.

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